

# The Modern Language Journal

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# The Modern Language Journal

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# THE Modern Language Journal

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## THE DIRECT TEACHING OF MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOLS<sup>1</sup>

The 'direct' process of modern foreign language teaching is as ancient as the human race. It always has been and always will be *the* method in all cases where the teacher's linguistic attainments are limited strictly to his own mother tongue. There it becomes by necessity the 'natural' process of imparting knowledge, and the *modus docendi*—again quite naturally—must consist in 'Vorsprechen' and 'Nachsprechen' with objectivation of the concepts wherever this is possible. And this was precisely the manner in which for example French was taught on German soil as early as the 12th century by the Hofmeister in the Ritterakademien and at the courts, and by the Sprachmeister in the homes of the burghers. The aim of the instruction in those days was of a purely practical nature, i. e. the acquisition of a speaking ability in the foreign tongue in the briefest possible time.

Not until towards the end of the 17th century did French become a regular study in a number of German secondary schools; for example, Stuttgart introduced it in the gymnasium in 1686, Gera in 1690, Erlangen 1696, Halle in 1698, etc. The introduction of French as a regular school subject created a large demand for teachers of this language. It became impossible to fill all the vacancies with French *maitres*. Besides, the majority of them, owing to their checkered political past on the one hand and lack of pedagogical training on the other hand were not acceptable to the German school authorities. Thus it became necessary to appoint to the teaching positions of French men trained in German universities. Only a few of these men, however, spoke the French language with any degree of fluency. It was natural, therefore,

<sup>1</sup>Paper delivered before the Modern Language Association of the Eastern States and the Central West and South, April 15, 1916.

that they approached the subject from the philological point of view and through the medium of the mother tongue. In short, they applied the indirect grammar-translation method, the method by which Latin and Greek had been taught for many a year in the German secondary schools.

This method predominated in the German school system, roughly estimating for two centuries; i. e. from 1700 to 1900. Now it must not be conceived as if there were no differing opinions or no attempts at reform during the centuries of the dominance of the indirect method of language teaching. It may be asserted with perfect justification that some of the best pedagogical minds of the sixteenth, seventeenth and eighteenth centuries have vigorously protested against the prevalence of formalism in the teaching processes. We need to mention only the names of Luther, Ratichius, Comenius, and Basedow in this connection. The influence of these great teachers was, however, more or less of a local character, and their pedagogical doctrine was by no means universally accepted. In consequence, the formal side of language teaching remained a dominant factor up to the end of the nineteenth century.

The development of the various types of Realanstalten in Germany gave a new and powerful impetus to a reform in the linguistic discipline. The names of Heinrich Schliemann, Hermann Perthes, Count Pfeil, and Moritz Trautmann are closely linked with the new movement. But the crushing blow to the formalism in language instruction was delivered by the then Wiesbadener school teacher, Wilhelm Viëtor in 1882, through the publication of his memorable *Der Sprachunterricht muss umkehren*. The Reform received the official endorsement in 1890 at the so-called December Conference. The oral and written employment of the foreign language, according to the resolutions framed and passed at this conference, was to be placed in the foreground. Ten years later followed the acceptance (with slight modifications) of the twelve articles known as the 'Wendtsche Thesen' (at the Leipziger Neuphilologentag, June 6, 1900). The success of the Reform movement was from that time on practically assured, especially with reference to the Realanstalten; by no means, however, has the reform method been universally adopted in the German secondary school system.

As regards the term 'direct method' it is of a relatively recent date. The method advocated by the German reformers is at first alluded to as 'die Reformmethode', but more often as 'die neue' or 'die neuere Methode'. Thus Viëtor in 1893 speaks of 'Unsere neue Methode in Amerika'. The same designation is frequently used by Max Walter. Occasionally we find the terms 'analytic' and 'inductive' applied. Klinghardt in 1892 suggests the name 'imitative' method, which is favorably commented upon. As a strictly technical term for the new process of foreign language instruction the designation 'direct' method was universally adopted in France, after this method had been officially endorsed and prescribed by the minister of public education, Monsieur Georges Leygues, in his *Circulaire* of November 15, 1901. Commenting upon this decree René Talamon (Williams College) says: "La première fois que nous l'entendrons il tombera des lèvres mêmes du ministre de l' Instruction Publique. . . . Son nom de Directe lui vient de ce qu' elle prétend supprimer l' intermédiaire de la langue maternelle non seulement dans la classe, mais encore dans le cerveau même de l' élève: il faut qu' il la comprenne, qu' il la parle 'directement' sans traduire".<sup>1</sup> In this circular M. Leygues declares the chief aim of foreign language instruction to be the acquisition of a speaking knowledge of the languages and the method which would most effectively lead to this goal to be the oral method. The term oral method, however, becomes supplanted by the designation direct method, owing to the use of this term in the publications of Messrs. Schweitzer and Simonnot, whose successful application of this method induced the French ministry of education to prescribe its universal adoption in the secondary schools. Gradually the term direct method begins to take the place of the names 'die Reformmethode', die 'neue' or 'neuere' Methode also in Germany, especially in Frankfort on the Main. But while in France it has received official sanction and strict enforcement, the same cannot be said of German secondary schools. There we still find all kinds of gradations and modifications of this method, according to type of institutions and individual preferences of school authorities and teachers. It would seem, therefore, more logical and consistent with actual conditions, to

<sup>1</sup>René Talamon: *La Méthode Directe en France*. Publications of the New England Mod. Lang. Asso. Vol. I, 1908.



refer to the new method in Germany as the 'Reformmethode', (since that term is also frequently used by German educators), in distinction from the French 'la méthode directe'.

As has been stated already the 'natural method' as practiced in Germany by the Sprachmeister and Hofmeister approximately from the twelfth to the eighteenth century fell into disuse when the modern foreign languages became installed in German secondary schools as obligatory studies. In the United States the 'natural method' was brought into prominence some forty years ago by men like Heness, Kroeh, van Daell, Sauveur, Berlitz, etc. It proved quite successful with younger children, but failed utterly when tried out in the public schools, even in the hands of the ablest teachers. (The Berlitz method, by the way, met with a similar fate in Russia.) Thus it gradually fell into disrepute and all efforts to perpetuate it were strongly opposed by American educators. We need not wonder, therefore, that when in the 1890ies the reform method found strong advocates in Germany, the American school men vigorously opposed its adoption in this country, mainly because they believed that 'die neue Methode' was simply the revival of the 'natural method'. Professor Grandgent in a letter to Viëtor (Nov. 18, 1893) expressed his fear that American educators would no doubt mistake the reform method to be the ill-fated 'natural' or 'conversational' method, and we all know from experience that this misconception has not altogether vanished even to-day.

The 'natural method' differs from the 'direct method' in three particular respects:

1. It lacks the phonetic basis.
2. In its first stages it makes no use of reading or writing, but deals with conversation pure and simple.
3. It postpones to a very late period statements of connected grammatical principles.

The essential features of the 'direct method', on the other hand, are:

1. Much attention is paid to pronunciation, practical phonetics being made use of wherever necessary.
2. Grammar is taught inductively, but systematically.
3. Free composition is largely substituted for translation into the foreign tongue.
4. Translation into the mother tongue is reduced to a minimum.
5. Reading forms the center of instruction and especial care is taken in the selection of the reading material; it must be national

in its character, i. e. it must serve to acquaint the pupil with the intellectual and soul life of the foreign nation.

The 'reform method' as it is largely practiced in Germany (except such direct method centers as Frankfort or schools in which the Frankfort system has been adopted with only slight modifications) deviates from the 'direct method' by allowing a more extensive use of the mother tongue in the class-room, especially in grammar work, which is done both analytically and synthetically, and by recognizing a moderate amount of translation from and into the mother tongue as a wholesome and necessary exercise, especially in the case of English where the amount of time available is considerably less than in the case of French.

You are, of course, all aware of the fact that there is no consensus of opinion among modern foreign language teachers in this country, either with regard to the aims or concerning the method of instruction. The best that can be said of the present tendencies is that two phases of teaching are becoming gradually recognized as absolutely essential in all modern foreign language work, if it is to be carried on with any assurance of success; namely:

1. Stressing of correct pronunciation
2. Use of connected reading material in place of isolated sentences as a basis for work in grammar in the initial stages of instruction.

And since there is no consensus of opinion, I feel justified in submitting to you briefly my own convictions regarding the methodological phases of foreign language teaching in our school system. I believe:

1. That the place of the Natural Method is in the grades with children who begin the study of a foreign language at an early age (eight or nine years), except that reading and writing can be safely introduced much earlier than is generally advocated by the adherents of the 'naturalistic' school. To teach by this method in a high school would mean a waste of time and energy.
2. The Direct Method as it is applied in France presupposes a course extending over a period of at least six years. This method can be applied most effectively in the so-called 'Junior High Schools'. We are using it with very gratifying results in the six-year course of our university demonstration school at Wisconsin. It is feasible, however, also in a four-year high school course, provided the instructor is able to discriminate between the more essential and the less essential features of this method.

3. In high schools where the foreign language course comprises less than four years, the Reform Method, with considerable allowances for the use of the mother tongue in the class-room, is the only sane and effective method to use, and the amount of the vernacular should increase, particularly in grammar work, the shorter the course and the older the student.

4. In schools and classes where the chief aim is to give the learner a speaking ability, the use of the Direct Method is not only logical but imperative. The Grammar-Translation Method, with some slight modifications in the sense of the Reform Method, on the other hand, should be used with students who wish to become nimble and exact translators within a comparatively short time (say two years). Its proper place is in the so-called technical college courses, where the ability to translate is distinctly placed in the foreground.

The 'Direct Methodists' in the various parts and sections of our continent are daily waxing more arduous in their adoration of this, their golden calf. As in the days of Tetzels, the promise is being held out that

"Sobald die direkte Methode erklingt,  
Die Seele in den Himmel springt"

And yet there are very, very few schools indeed in which the instruction in modern foreign languages is really conducted in strict accordance with the principles of this method. Even those of our colleagues who would have us consider them as the originators of the Direct Method are in more than one respect violating some of the basic principles of that method. The fact that a teacher lays considerable stress on correct pronunciation, making occasional use of phonetic helps, or that he does considerable oral work in the foreign language in connection with the reading lesson is by no means an indication that he is following the Direct Method; he is simply using some of the devices of that method. In schools where the Direct Method is used, we find upon investigation that the classes are usually composed of pupils who either have had German in the upper grades or else possess some natural speaking knowledge of the language because of their German extraction. Such schools and classes, however, are not typical of the general conditions in our country, but rather the vast number of high schools in which the course comprises only two years and where the classes are composed largely of pupils who enter without any or only a slight knowledge of the foreign language. In Wisconsin



these high schools constitute about 68 per cent. of the entire number of accredited schools. In other states conditions are similar. Now, what can be accomplished in such institutions in such a brief period of time? Comparatively little. We can teach the pupils a fairly decent pronunciation, cover the most essential principles of German grammar, read in all about 200 pages of easy German, acquire some 1200 to 1500 words of active vocabulary, memorize a few poems, give the pupils a number of talks (in English) on Germany and the Germans, and the possibilities of our 'Kulturarbeit' are exhausted. The oral work in connection with the reading lessons, as well as the drill on grammatical forms, can and should, of course, be conducted in German; not with the prime object of giving the pupil a speaking knowledge but to insure correct pronunciation and to facilitate the fixing of vocabulary and of grammatical forms; but we can not afford to teach technical grammar in the foreign language, nor can we possibly employ texts with a German-German vocabulary as the tenets of the Direct Method would demand. In short, the Direct Method without considerable modifications has no place in a two-year course in German with pupils of non-German parentage; *with* such modifications as would make it a workable scheme it *is* no longer the Direct Method, but rather the Reform Method—and the sooner this point is cleared up the less room will there be left for misconceptions and self-deceit.

To teach a class by the Direct Method requires a well equipped, resourceful and live teacher. The number of such teachers is very limited indeed. But even the Reform Method presupposes better prepared teachers and better edited texts than we possess at the present time.

You are, no doubt, all familiar with Professor Hohlfield's preliminary report on the collegiate training of teachers of modern foreign languages. You will recall that there is practically a general agreement among the American educators to the effect that graduation from a four-year collegiate course or an equivalent is indispensable for candidates preparing to teach in a secondary school. A considerable number of correspondents would require one year's graduate work in addition. From this same report it is evident that the second imperative need is the reorganization of the so-called teachers' courses in our colleges and universities.

How such a reorganization is to be brought about has been ably discussed by Mr. Weigel of the University of Chicago in his paper on 'The Reorganization of Teachers' Training in German in our Colleges and Universities'. (*Monatshefte*, Vol. XVII, Nos. 1-2, 1916). My own article on 'The Teachers' Course in German with Special Reference to Phonetics' (*Monatshefte*, Vol. XVI, No. 4, 1915) also deals with this problem.

Given a fairly well prepared teacher, the next question in secondary teaching demanding our attention is that of suitable and properly edited texts. The irrational practice of publishing texts, which are to meet the needs of both the college and the secondary school, should be discontinued. We must have grammars expressly intended for high school pupils. It would be very desirable to issue a *series* of such Lehrbücher, a separate volume for each year, containing just enough material for a year's work and well graded with regard to the reading lessons. Also a better edited series of the standard classical authors. The grammatical exercises in each text should be so arranged as not to overlap and repeat more than necessary the work of the previous years. For the present the self-styled Direct Method Texts show more debit than credit on this score.

Aside from texts intended for classroom work there is a need of texts so edited as to serve the purposes of outside reading. It is self-evident that the apparatus accompanying these texts must differ considerably from that used in the class room.

It would also seem very desirable that at least within each state a definite and fixed list of high school texts for courses in foreign languages be agreed upon. Such a 'Lesekanon', while leaving room for individual preferences, ought not be too extensive and ought to comprise only material of real pedagogical and cultural worth, excluding everything trivial and lachrymously sentimental, such as the crude and shallow products of a Marlitt, Werner, Heimburg, and the like. The Wisconsin Association of Modern Language Teachers has this matter under consideration. The problem might be very profitably taken up by this Association; it would then have a greater weight than if handled by the individual state associations. Every three or four years the 'Lesekanon' would be revised and brought up to date. The necessity for such a 'Lesekanon' is a real one; whoever may be inclined to doubt it,

need only to ask the novice in the profession or the high school inspector.

Another enterprise which ought to receive our consideration in the near future is the establishment—in the larger educational centers—of institutes for experimental work in the field of foreign language study.<sup>1</sup> The purpose of such an institute would be to investigate on a large scale the various problems of foreign language work by conducting definite experiments in the affiliated schools, to test the value and applicability of the various educational theories, and thus to place the teaching of foreign languages on a solid scientific basis.

CHARLES M. PURIN.

State Normal School, Milwaukee.

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<sup>1</sup>The organization and distribution of work in such 'experimental stations' might be well modeled after the Leipziger Institut für experimentelle Pädagogik. This Institut was founded in 1906 with a membership of 47 teachers. In 1911 (the latest report to which I had access) the organization comprised 182 active and 78 passive members, 50 of these being teachers' associations, chiefly in the kingdom of Saxony.



## INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AND NOTE-BOOK WORK IN MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Perhaps no problem of school life causes the conscientious teacher more worry and thought than that of providing for the individual needs of the members of a class. Torn between the conflicting desires, on the one hand of lifting and guiding the weakling from his slough of despond to the firm ground of successful accomplishment, and on the other of providing new material for the ablest pupil and encouraging him to effort commensurate with his ability, one most frequently finds oneself educating the extremes of a group of children to be either weak learners or indolent dawdlers, while the mediocre, the average of the class, plod along without incentive to extra exertion and become confirmed in their mediocrity. We<sup>1</sup> believe the following pages may suggest to teachers some means for overcoming this difficulty and providing at least partially for the individual differences of their pupils in modern foreign languages. It will readily be seen, moreover, that these suggestions are quite capable of adaptation to other lines of work, especially mathematics.

Assuming that it is our ideal to secure a maximum amount of progress from each individual of the class in a given time for preparation and recitation, and assuming further that a reasonable appeal to the spirit of competition in children is desirable, the following plans for note-book work are offered as having been thoroughly tried out in our classes, and as contributing materially to the end desired.

### PLAN NO. 1

**Conditions Existing.** Two classes in French, a first-year and a second-year high-school class, using respectively Chardenal's *Complete French Course* and Fraser and Squair's *Shorter French Course* as grammar texts, and Bierman and Frank's *Conversational*

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<sup>1</sup>Miss Jean Hadden conducted part of the experiment herein described for French, and many valuable ideas were borrowed from the excellent class room procedure of Mrs. Frances K. Burr, in German, and were made use of in both plans.

*French Reader* and Halévy's *L'Abbé Constantin* as reading material. Sizes respectively, 12 and 15 pupils.

**General Method Pursued.** After several weeks of preliminary work, pronunciation drill in the one case and grammar review in the other, the classes were requested to secure note-books of uniform size and shape. Definite days were assigned for grammar and reading. Definite instructions were given as to the manner of approaching a grammar lesson. The French sentences were to be studied and translated, with such reference to vocabulary and grammar rules as was necessary. Then the vocabulary was to be thoroughly studied, and last of all, the grammar rules were to be mastered. This was the point at which the retranslation of the English sentences was to begin. Each pupil had a standing assignment of the exercise next following the one he had finished, so that as soon as the class began to scatter, the necessity of the teacher's making individual assignments was done away with.

The note-books were kept in the school by the teacher. Each grammar day the pupil came with an exercise, or as much of one as he could do in the time allotted to preparation, worked out on scratch paper. This was copied into his book during the class hour, at which time he had an opportunity to ask the teacher any questions necessary and to make any revision that he himself found advisable in going over the work a second time. Ordinarily the questions were answered by reference to the needed paragraph of the text, so that the pupil was encouraged to use his book effectively and intelligently. When the pupils began to get exercises finished in their note-books, they came one at a time to the teacher's desk, where the exercise was gone over rapidly, mistakes underscored, and the pupil sent back to his seat to make corrections in complete sentences on the opposite page, which was left blank for the purpose. In this way practically all the books could be handled within the hour. Those left over the teacher could easily do before the next grammar day, without feeling it a burden, but the work was so planned that no pupil escaped entirely for any considerable length of time the personal interview with the teacher. On the next grammar day the same process was gone through with, except that all corrections had to be made before any new exercises were copied into the note-books. This was rigorously adhered to.



When some weak pupils began to lag behind, a minimum requirement was set, and on a given day the lessons to that point were reviewed and a short quiz given. This practice regularly continued served both as a spur for the laggards and as an excellent review for those far ahead. On the reading days a large amount of oral practice was engaged in, and frequently ten minutes of the grammar day was used for oral work, if it was felt desirable. The possibility of such a combination is quite evident.

**Discussion of Details of the Plan.** The immediate result was a much higher grade of work than was secured under the old oral recitation of grammar and the too infrequent written work. The heavy burden of outside correction was largely removed from the teacher's shoulders, for this work was done for the most part in class. The pupils were encouraged to depend upon their books and their own efforts, yet help was available when needed. Thus the time of the bright was not wasted with explanations needed only by the dull. Every pupil was held for every grammar fact, and there was no escape or evasion. Every pupil was hard at work every minute of the class hour. If too slow progress was being made in the grammar, more days could be assigned to it, and *vice versa*. There was great incentive to correctness the first time through an exercise, for then there was less correcting and consequently more rapid progress. The working out of the exercises in rough form and then copying them into the note-books contributed greatly to this accuracy. Almost in no other way can one get a whole class to work through an exercise twice, revising and improving it.

The oral work was not allowed to suffer. The accomplishments of both classes in this regard were quite as satisfactory as those of other classes trained by a different method. In addition to the oral work on days devoted to reading, those especially needing pronunciation drill were given additional practice by occasionally having them read their sentences aloud at the desk. This was not found to disturb the other members of the class.

The problem of dishonesty was practically eliminated, for under the natural working out of this plan many exercises were studied and written in the class, if the pupil had reached that stage of his work. That is, if the old exercise was corrected and the new exercise copied into the note-book, the pupil did not stop, but

continued with the following exercise till the teacher reached him in his turn. Under the competition developed, seven pupils were racing for first place in one of the classes operating under this plan, while in the other enormous gaps developed. It was found that an occasional bright pupil with initiative and ambition could do two years' work in one, and such were encouraged to do so. This shows clearly the contribution made to the individual need of the pupil.

The making up of work missed was rendered a comparatively simple matter. The pupil simply continued as fast as he could from the point reached before the absence or other cause of delinquency. This also relieved the teacher from the burden of responsibility in such cases. There was no misunderstanding of assignments, once the system was clearly in mind. The pupils liked it because there was always a definite task to do. It was easy to check up the pupils who failed to make preparation and call them to account for it. The teacher, of course, had to develop speed in checking the books, and could not linger long over individual mistakes. It was found to be a good plan to have two or three pupils in succession read the English sentences of a new exercise aloud as the teacher checked mistakes, until the material became sufficiently familiar to make consultation of the English unnecessary. The pupils' corrections, of course, had to be checked over. It was our custom to give a grade for the original exercise and to put a check mark at the top of each corrected page to show we had looked it over. This work can be done very rapidly as the teacher gains experience. A record of the work completed was kept by the teacher on a sheet of graph paper, the exercise being checked off for each pupil as he completed it.

We were frequently asked, "But what will you do when the end of the year comes? How will you take care of the inequalities?" That was quite simple. In the first-year class a limit was set in the grammar, determined by the average rate of the class. When the most advanced had reached this point, they were given extra reading of an easy grade, and an honor system of marks was introduced in such a manner that it was impossible for any pupil to get above a "Good" who had not done a considerable amount of such reading and reported on it for content. In the second-year class the limit was, of course, the completion of the grammar text, and

there, too, the solution was the same. The pupils were eager to get to the point where they could do this extra reading. Several second-year pupils read as much as six hundred pages extra, three hundred of which were reported on to the teacher. These were exceptional cases, however. The poorest read about forty pages.

As to the relation of this plan to the direct or reform method, it was as direct as the nature of the texts would allow. It must be borne in mind that only the note-book work has been described in detail here, with mere passing mention of the oral work in connection with the reading. The approach was always through the foreign language to the grammar. The percentage of French used in class, both oral and written, was very high, and we feel that we can defend the work against any criticism of being reactionary or too conservative. The plan is recommended both to teachers of French and of German, or of other foreign languages, for that matter, for adaptation to their particular needs. It will not work well in classes of more than fifteen or sixteen pupils, because of the volume of work turned out.<sup>1</sup> For larger classes and different text conditions we recommend:

#### PLAN NO. 2

**Conditions Existing.** A Freshman first-year high-school class in German, using Manfred's *Ein praktischer Anfang*. Size, 27 pupils.

**General Method Pursued.** In a convenient corner of the black-board double columns were ruled off, labeled respectively 'Verlangt' and 'Extra'. After a complete lesson in the grammar had been worked out orally and a new lesson was just started, there was inserted in the first column the paragraph number of one of the abundant exercises contained in the text, always one that was well adapted to written work, but in this case never a set of English sentences to be done into German. In the second column were inserted the numbers of two or three other exercises in the completed lesson, among which was usually the set of English sentences.

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<sup>1</sup>Before leaving the discussion of Plan No. 1, the possibilities of a reverse procedure to that described deserve to be pointed out. That is, instead of relying solely upon reviews for general class recitation in grammar, the material might be passed over very rapidly in advance, the teacher pointing out particular difficulties, and the pupils being allowed to follow up this general presentation as rapidly as they could. For an especially weak class this would have certain advantages.

The note-books were distributed by a pupil appointed for the purpose, and this was regularly attended to before the bell rang. It was thoroughly understood by all pupils that the first ten minutes of the hour were to be spent in writing, and work on the paragraphs indicated was begun without delay and without special direction from the teacher. At the end of the appointed time the note-books were passed in and stacked in a convenient place to wait for the next day's written work.

It will readily be seen that while some pupils did only the required minimum, others would do a large part or all of the extra exercises as well, thus getting an extra amount of practice. The teacher went about the class during the writing and called attention to flagrant errors. The work, as in Plan No. 1, was written on one page and the opposite page left blank for corrections. The teacher checked the books outside of class at his leisure, five books now, now ten, or the whole lot, as he saw fit. It was a standing rule that all mistakes indicated were to be corrected before advance work was to be taken up, and the same system of grades and check marks was used as under Plan No. 1.

**Discussion of Details of the Plan.** The most important result was undoubtedly that the abler pupils in the class were given a chance to develop their powers to the full during this written work, and were in no way hampered by the slowness of the weaker ones. Two or three bright and rapid workers were able frequently to finish even the extra exercises assigned within the time allowed, and these were then given some easy reading text which was always to be found on the teacher's desk, and which they were privileged to get when the written work was completed. This proved a great stimulus to rapid and careful work, for the privilege of doing this extra reading was highly prized as a special mark of honor.

The checking did not prove a burden, for it could be done at odd times; there was no necessity for doing all the books at once, as the work was proceeding on an individual instead of a uniform basis. Improvement was steady, for instead of doing a large amount of writing infrequently, some was done every day. Often a dictation exercise or writing a poem from memory was sandwiched into the writing period, perhaps taking up an extra five or ten minutes of the class hour. All of the extra written work, as well as all tests and examinations given the class, went into this one

note-book, and all were corrected in the same way. There was no need for loose sheets of paper to be flying about or cluttering up floor or desks.

Here, even better than in Plan No. 1, the problem of dishonest written work took care of itself. The work was all done in class under the teacher's eye. Pupils inclined to want help frequently were referred to their texts, if necessary by page or paragraph, until they formed the habit of depending on their own ability to find what they wanted. This, as was indicated above, is an exceedingly important matter; one of the most serious faults of our teaching is that our pupils do not learn to use without special direction the printed helps they have. A language pupil's grammar should, as he progresses, become his trusted and well-known companion, instead of being allowed to collect dust in some forgotten corner, as too frequently happens.

The condition of the classes trained by these two plans is, at the beginning of the present school year, so satisfactory, that we feel amply repaid for our experiments, and justified in our confidence in the initiative of American youth if it is given proper encouragement and an end to work for.

J. D. DEIHL.

Wisconsin High School, University of Wisconsin.





## DAS STUDIUM DER GEOGRAPHIE UND LANDESKUNDE DEUTSCHLANDS

Wenn man gegenwärtig die Programme der Lehrerversammlungen in unserem Fach ansieht, wird man überall das Thema der Vorbildung im Mittelpunkt finden. Das ganze Land, der Osten und Westen, ist sich plötzlich bewusst geworden, dass die Vorbildung der Lehrer einer Neuordnung und einer gründlichen Reform bedarf, und die guten Anfänge dazu, die man in den letzten zehn Jahren gemacht hat, haben schon reichlich Frucht getragen.

Aber mit der Frage der *Vorbildung* der Lehrer ist das Problem noch lange nicht gelöst; weder hier in Amerika, wo die Vorbildung zum grössten Teil noch nicht staatlich geregelt ist, noch in Deutschland, wo schon seit Jahren der Staat eine gründliche wissenschaftliche Vorbildung verlangt hat. In Deutschland ist die Universität dazu da, den Lehrern den wissenschaftlichen Geist einzupflanzen; sie zu wissenschaftlicher Arbeit anzuleiten; ihnen die grossen leitenden Gesichtspunkte der Sprach- und Literaturentwicklung zu geben; ihnen klar zu machen, wo die Schwerpunkte in ihrem Fache liegen; in welcher Weise es mit andern Fächern verbunden ist; und ihnen vielleicht auch die wichtigsten Grundbegriffe der Pädagogik und Methodik zu geben.

Aber damit ist die Arbeit an der Bildung auch dort noch lange nicht abgeschlossen. Vorbildung, auch die beste und gründlichste, geht langsam verloren, wenn sich auf diesem Untergrund nicht eine planvolle, systematische Weiterbildung aufbaut, eine Weiterbildung gerade auf den Gebieten, die für die Praxis und für die Schule wichtig sind. Diese Weiterbildung ist für uns alle gleich notwendig, einerlei ob wir jahrelang auf der Universität gründliche Studien getrieben haben, oder ob wir trotz ungenügender Vorbildung, durch traurige Umstände mehr als durch eigene Schuld, von einem verständnislosen Schulvorstand gezwungen wurden, Deutsch zu unterrichten, weil es vielleicht gerade so in den Stundenplan der Schule hinlinpasste.

Aber die Frage der Weiterbildung ist ein grosses Kapitel, das sich über viele Jahre und über viele Seiten unseres Gegenstandes erstreckt, und aus den verschiedenen Möglichkeiten möchte ich

heute das Gebiet der *Geographie und Landeskunde Deutschlands* hervorheben.

Zuerst aber müssen wir uns noch mit einer allgemeinen Frage beschäftigen: Wie viel *Zeit* und wie viel *Geld* soll ein Lehrer des Deutschen auf seine Weiterbildung verwenden? Was die Frage der *Zeit* betrifft, glaube ich, dass zwei bis drei Stunden die Woche nicht zu viel und nicht zu wenig sind. Ich scheide die Prüfungswochen aus und auch die Wochen am Anfang des Jahres, wo besonders viel Arbeit zu tun ist. Dann bleiben noch immer dreissig Wochen: eine genügende Zeit, um wirklich etwas im Laufe eines Jahres zu leisten. Zwei Stunden die Woche scheinen allerdings für hochgespannte Ideale nicht zu viel Zeit zur Weiterbildung zu sein—aber wir wissen, wer sich zu viel vornimmt, wird es entweder nicht ausführen—oder was mir gerade so schlimm scheint,—Schaden an der Gesundheit leiden. Junge Lehrerinnen, die eben anfangen zu unterrichten, werden noch weniger Zeit haben, da sie gewiss die zwei ersten Jahre brauchen, um sich einzuarbeiten.

In den grösseren Städten hat man natürlich mehr Anregung zur Weiterarbeit: man kann vielleicht einen Kurs an einer Universität besuchen; man kann deutsche Vorträge hören, wo man mitarbeitet, aber Vortragskurse ohne eigene Mitarbeit und Vorbereitung haben nur sehr zweifelhaften Wert.

Nun die Frage des *Geldes*: Ich glaube fünf Dollars pro Jahr für Bücher ist nicht zu viel, für die eigene Weiterbildung auszugeben. Es gibt natürlich viele Bücher, die man sich in grösseren Städten von der Bibliothek holen kann. Man liest sie, macht sich einige Notizen und bringt sie wieder zurück. Aber jeder Fachlehrer muss unbedingt eine gewisse Fachbibliothek, die jederzeit zur Benützung bereit steht, sein eigen nennen. In manchen Fällen ist die Schulbibliothek bereit, solche Bücher zu kaufen; aber *ein* Buch auf dem eigenen Schreibtisch ist meiner Ansicht nach soviel wert wie drei Bücher in der Schulbibliothek.

*Was bedeutet nun Landeskunde von Deutschland für den Schüler und was bedeutet sie für den Lehrer?* Für den Schüler in den Mittelschulen wird sie wohl nicht mehr sein können als eine Kenntnis der Grundbegriffe: die Grenzen, die sechs grössten Flüsse, die wichtigsten Gebirge und Städte; vom Lehrer aber verlangt man mit Recht eine wirkliche Kenntnis der Verhältnisse des Landes. Er muss einen Einblick in die landschaftliche Gliederung haben;

er muss etwas über die Volksstämme und ihre Eigenheiten wissen; er muss die Produkte des Landes kennen; er muss wissen, wo die wichtigsten Industriegebiete sind und auf welchen physiographischen Grundlagen sie beruhen; er muss die Städte und ihre Sehenswürdigkeiten kennen; er muss wohl auch einen Überblick über die Entwicklung der Baukunst haben, besonders aber eine Kenntnis der Bauwerke, die von besonderem historischen Interesse sind.

Die deutschen Städte sind ein besonders wichtiges und interessantes Gebiet der Landeskunde, und wir wollen hier einen Augenblick innehalten, um zu sehen, was wir eigentlich unter der Eigenart einer alten deutschen Stadt verstehen. In jeder alten Stadt sind gewissermassen mehrere Städte. Da gibt es eine romanische und eine gotische Stadt, eine Renaissance-Stadt, eine des Barock, eine des Klassizismus und dann noch eine moderne Stadt. Da ist die romanische Bischofsstadt, in der Mitte der Dom, daneben weite Klosteranlagen, ringsherum ein alter Domplatz, von alten Bauwerken eingeschlossen, voller Stille und voll alter Erinnerungen; daneben fügt sich geistreich ein alter barocker Bischofspalast ein, mit stattlichem Portal, und dem geistlichen Wappen als Ornament darüber. Die schönste Verkörperung einer solchen romanischen Bischofsstadt mit barocker Weiterentwicklung ist Bamberg.

Von der beherrschenden Anlage der Kirche führen schräge Strassen oder breite Treppen in die Bürgerstadt hinab. Diese gruppiert sich um gotische Kirchen und das Renaissance-Rathaus am Markt. Dort stehen hochgegiebelte Fachwerkhäuser und schöne alte Brunnen; die Strassen laufen unsicher schwankend, in merkwürdigen Windungen, durch das alte Stadtviertel bis zu den Toren. Dort sehen wir noch Reste der alten Stadtmauer mit Wehrgang und Türmen.

Werfen wir einen Blick auf jene Städte, wo sich Gotik und Renaissance am reinsten erhalten haben: Nürnberg, Dinkelsbühl, Nördlingen, Augsburg und wohl am schönsten von allen—Rotenburg. Man weiss nicht, was das Schönste und Interessanteste ist, der Anblick Rotenburgs von dem gegenüberliegenden Hügel, die rostbraunen Umrisse der Stadt mit dem zackigen Mauerkranz, die scharfen Konturen der Kirchtürme, oder die Giebel der Patrizierhäuser und die alten Tore der Wachttürme, die in das weite Land hinausschauen.

Und drinnen die alten winkeligen Strassenzüge,—die alten Patrizierhäuser mit den wundervollen Toren, Höfen und Portalen,—die prächtigen geschlossenen Plätze mit den alten Brunnen, wo die Marktfrauen ihr Wasser holen.

Kaum eine andere Stadt hat den Geist des Mittelalters so rein erhalten wie Rotenburg. Es ist aber ebenso interessant zu sehen, was die Neuzeit aus den alten Gräben, Wällen und Mauern gemacht hat. Es gibt verhältnismässig nur wenige Städte, die die mittelalterlichen Befestigungen erhalten haben. In der Zeit vom 17ten bis zum 19ten Jahrhundert sind viele der Stadtmauern gefallen; am meisten hat wohl das 19ten Jahrhundert mit ihnen aufgeräumt, denn das Wachstum der Bevölkerung verlangte eine sehr bedeutende Erweiterung des Geländes. Manche Städte verstanden es, die mittelalterlichen Befestigungen sehr klug auszunützen, und bald gewährte der Wallring ein ganz anderes Bild. Vielfach ward die Mauer erniedrigt, es wurden Bäume gepflanzt, auf die vorgeschobenen Bastionen stellte man Bänke, und so entstand allmählich eine prachtvolle Promenade. Es ist reizend, auf einem solchen Lindenweg spazieren zu gehen; da schaut man auf die Dächer der Häuser, in die Gassen hinein, auf einen alten Graben, der vielleicht noch mit Wasser gefüllt ist, oder der unterdessen zu einem freundlichen Garten geworden ist. Viele Städte sind inzwischen so sehr gewachsen, dass ein solcher Promadenring, der noch vor 50 Jahren die Hauptmasse der Stadt umschloss, jetzt vielleicht nur das innerste Sechstel des Stadtganzen einfasst. Am allerschönsten sehen wir das wohl in der alten Donaustadt Wien.

Die deutsche Stadt ist viel weniger als die französische oder italienische ein festes volkstümliches Gebilde. Die süddeutsche Stadt ist etwas ganz andres als die norddeutsche; westdeutsche Stadtbilder scheinen aus einer anderen Kulturzone zu stammen als ostdeutsche. Einmal überwiegt das Romanische, ein andermal das Gotische: hier gibt es eine winklige Renaissance-Stadt, dort eine regelmässige Barockstadt, und dann taucht wieder eine Residenzstadt auf, in der ganz der Geist des Klassizismus zu walten scheint. Und die partikularistische deutsche Geschichte hat noch ein übriges getan, um den Städtecharakter noch mehr zu verwirren, zu variieren. Neben der bürgerlichen Handelstadt steht mit stark ausgeprägten Zügen drinnen im Land die alte Reichstadt;

neben der offenen ländlichen Stadt der Ackerbürger gibt es die kleine Residenz. Solch kleine Residenzstädtchen sind nur in Deutschland zu sehen, aber da in grosser Anzahl, und jedes hat seinen eigenen Charakter und Stil.

Die Fürstenstadt ist wirklich eine Welt für sich. Das Schloss liegt, wie eine Zwingburg am wichtigen Flussübergang, entweder abseits vom Stadtmittelpunkt, oder die Hauptstrasse beherrschend. Dicht daneben erhebt sich die Hofkirche; das Theater ist nicht weit, und an den grossen ebenen Plätzen liegen die representativen Regierungsgebäude, die Marställe und Museen, die in imposanten klassizistischen Stilformen gebaut sind; die Strassen ziehen gerade dahin, der Bauboden ist geradlinig in Rechtecke abgeteilt, grosse regelmässige Plätze sind freigelassen; und es herrscht eine gewisse Gleichförmigkeit in der Bauweise der Häuser im italienisierenden oder französisierenden Stil. Man denke nur an Karlsruhe, Mannheim, Darmstadt; die architektonisch reizvollste Stadt dieser Gruppe ist wohl Potsdam. Es ist nicht eine frei und selbstständig gewachsene Stadt, wie Rotenburg und alle alten süddeutschen Städte, sondern sie ist aus dem Eigenwillen und dem Geschmack *eines* Mannes herausgeschaffen. Friedrich der Grosse hat hier seiner Baulust freien Lauf gelassen und der sonst recht sparsame Fürst hat ausser den grossen Summen, die er für Potsdams Schlösser, Gärten und öffentliche Bauten ausgab, noch etwa 60 Millionen Mark als Bauzuschuss für etwa 1200 bürgerliche Stadtwohnungen ausgegeben.

Zu allen diesen kommt die moderne Stadt, überall mehr oder minder mit der Tendenz zum Grosstädtischen. Sie zerstört das Alte immer mehr, und die moderne Grosstadt hat nicht immer Erfreuliches in Bauwerken hervorgebracht, und wenn wir uns die grossen eleganten Mietskasernen im Westen Berlins ansehen, haben wir das Gefühl, dass ihre Ornamente gar nichts mit dem Wesen des Baues zu tun haben. Der Berliner Witz hat diese Gebäude in einer kleinen Anekdote sehr gut charakterisiert:—Ein Berliner Maurermeister sagt nämlich zu seinem Bauherrn "Nun, Herr Schulze, der Rohbau ist so weit fertig—Was für einen Stil wollen Sie denn jetzt daran haben?" Aber die moderne Bauweise macht das Stadtbild auch wieder in einer besonderen Weise anregend, interessant und belebend.



Die süddeutschen Kunststädte, Karlsruhe, München und besonders Darmstadt haben in der modernen bürgerlichen Kultur des Hausbaus wohl das Beste hervorgebracht. Und wir sind heute weder Ritter noch Prälaten; wir leben nicht in Burgen oder Klöstern, und so ist das einfach Geschmackvolle der modernen bürgerlichen Kultur ebenso wichtig und interessant für uns wie die Reste vergangener Zeiten.

Auf einer Wanderung durch die deutschen Lande und Städte fesselt dieser fabelhafte Reichtum an Gestaltung immer wieder. Der Laie fasst seinen Eindruck gewöhnlich in dem keineswegs zutreffenden Ausdruck *romantisch* oder *malerisch* zusammen, aber der Lehrer, der das Verständnis des fremden Landes vermitteln soll, muss im stande sein, diesen unklaren Gesamtbegriff des Romantischen und Malerischen zu verstehen und in seine Grundbegriffe aufzulösen. Gerade hier berührt sich unser Studium aufs engste mit dem der Geschichte. Es ist ganz unmöglich, eine reinliche Scheidungslinie zwischen diesen zwei Gebieten zu ziehen, und ganz selbstverständlich führt das Studium der Geographie und Landeskunde den Lehrer unmerklich hinüber zu dem der Geschichte, einem anderen, ungemein wichtigen Gebiet der Weiterbildung.

Wie mit der Geschichte, so berührt sich das Gebiet der deutschen Landeskunde auch eng mit der Literatur. Wir haben eine ganze Gruppe von Romanen, die man unter dem Titel „Deutsche Landschaftsromane“ oder „Provinzialromane“ zusammenfasst, und unter dem Schlagwort „Heimatkunst“ hat gerade das Ende des 19ten und der Anfang des 20ten Jahrhunderts viel Schönes und Bemerkenswertes hervorgebracht. In der neuesten Auflage von Mielke „Der deutsche Roman“ findet sich in den zwei Kapiteln „Provinzialroman“ und „Dorf und Bauernroman“ eine gute Zusammenstellung dieser Literatur.

Manche unserer besten Schriftsteller haben ihre Feder gern in den Dienst der Heimatbeschreibung gestellt, man denke nur an Fontane's „Wanderungen durch die Mark Brandenburg“. Dieses Land an der Havel und Spree ist, als des heiligen römischen Reiches „Streusandbüchse“, viel geschmäht und viel verspottet worden, und doch liegt ein eigenartiger Zauber in seinen stillen Seen und kiefernbewachsenen Sandflächen.

Wer sich die Mühe geben will, in den Geist und die stille herbe Schönheit der Mark Brandenburg einzudringen, der wird in

Fontane den besten Führer finden—Landschaftliches und Historisches, Sitten und Charakterschilderung wechseln bunt in diesen Bänden, aber überall zeigt sich die stille, tiefe Liebe des Verfassers zu seiner märkischen Heimat. Man sehe sich dazu Leistikows Landschaftsbilder und Skizzen an, vor allem den schweigenden Ernst des Grunewaldsees und nehme den Band „Aus stillen Städten der Mark Brandenburg<sup>1</sup>,” zur Hand, lese Wildenbruchs „Quitows” und ein lebendiges Bild wird vor den Augen emporsteigen.

*Aber wie kann nun eine solche Kenntnis der Landeskunde Deutschlands gewonnen werden?* Natürlich nicht aus einem Buch—nicht einmal aus Baedekers Reisehandbüchern von Deutschland—trotzden diese zum Nachschlagen von Einzelheiten unübertrefflich sind.

Eine gute Kenntnis Deutschlands kann nur der gewinnen, der in verschiedenen Büchern die mannigfachen Seiten des deutschen Lebens und der deutschen Landschaft kennen gelernt hat. Gerade das Zusammensuchen aus den verschiedensten Darstellungen, den verschiedensten Gebieten von verschiedenen Gesichtspunkten aus, ist ungemein wertvoll. Was im Anfang vielleicht nur als Einzelheiten erscheint, fügt sich nach und nach im Geiste zu einem festen Bild zusammen, und allmählich steht Deutschland vor uns, nicht nur als geographischer Begriff, sondern als ein lebendes Land mit einer Seele und einer ausgesprochenen Charakteristik der einzelnen Landesteile und Städte.

Ich habe mir nun aus der Unzahl von Büchern über Deutschland nach länger Überlegung elf ausgewählt, die ich für ein solches Jahresstudium für die Weiterbildung am geeignetsten halte: alle diese elf Bücher sind zum Preise von fünf Dollars zu bekommen. Gerade während der letzten 20 Jahre hat man ungemein grosse Fortschritte in der Illustrationskunst gemacht, und wir können gute, vorzüglich illustrierte Bücher und ausgezeichnetes Bildermaterial zu einem Preise bekommen, der vor 15 oder 20 Jahren ganz undenkbar gewesen wäre.<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>138 Abbildungen nach Naturaufnahmen, mit einleitendem Text von Lothar Brieger Verlag für Kunstwissenschaft, Berlin.

<sup>2</sup>Friedemann, Kleine Schulgeographie von Deutschland, Huhle, Dresden M. .45  
Kullmer, A Sketch Map of Germany. Kramer Publ. Co., Syracuse M. 1.00  
Sach, Die Deutsche Heimat. Waisenhaus, Halle M. 10.00  
Weise, Die Deutschen Stämme und Landschaften. Teubner, Leipzig M. 1.25

Als Erstes bei einem solchen Studium der Landeskunde braucht man eine grundlegende Kenntnis der Geographie. Ich würde dazu eine kleine deutsche Schulgeographie empfehlen, wie Friedemann, *Kleine Schulgeographie von Deutschland*. Hier findet man eine Zusammenstellung der wichtigsten physikalischen Grundbegriffe, auf die man weiter aufbauen kann. Es ist auch ganz interessant zu sehen, wie und wie viel Geographie man in den deutschen Volks- und Mittelschulen lernt.

Die Geographie Deutschlands sitzt aber nicht wirklich fest im Gedächtnis, wenn der Lehrer nicht ein klares Bild vor Augen hat und es reproduzieren kann; das heisst, er muss im Stande sein, eine Karte von Deutschland mit einfachen Linien aus dem Kopfe zu zeichnen. Ein vorzügliches Buch für solche einfachen Umrisskarten, die aus dem Gedächtnis gezeichnet werden sollen, bietet das kleine Buch von Kullmer, *A Sketch Map of Germany*.

Deutschland ist geographisch in landschaftliche Gebiete eingeteilt, die allerlei Verschiedenheiten zeigen und die von sich eben so scharf unterscheidenden Volksstämmen bewohnt sind. Ein gutes Verständnis des deutschen Lebens kann aber nur auf Grund der Kenntnis der einzelnen Landschaften und Stämme erreicht werden. Die Volkstämme, die seit Urzeiten in einem Landesteil wohnen, haben ihm seinem Charakter aufgedrückt; die Bauernhäuser jeder Gegend haben ihren besonderen Stil; landschaftliche Dialekte sind bis heute erhalten; der Charakter der Menschen, wenn er auch nicht von ihrer Stammeseigenheit bedingt wird, ist doch jedenfalls bis auf heute von ihr beeinflusst. Das beste einschlägige Buch ist O. Weise, *Die Deutschen Stämme und Landschaften*. In verschiedenen Kapiteln schildert Weise uns die Eigenart der Landesgebiete, die von den Sachsen, Franken, Bayern, Alemannen und Thüringern bewohnt sind und zeigt, welchen Einfluss das Land auf das Temperament des Volkstammes hat. Auch zeigt er uns, neben dieser Übersicht über Landschaft und Volksstamm in einer kurzen, anregenden, historischen Über-

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Rodenberg, Bilder aus dem Berliner Leben.	Hendel, Halle	. . . M.	.75
Trentini, Südtirol.	Velhagen und Klasing, Leipzig	. . . M.	.60
Bittrich, Der Schwarzwald.	Velhagen und Klasing, Leipzig	. . . M.	.60
Baum, Die schöne deutsche Stadt. Süddeutschland.	Piper, München		1.80
Wolf, Die schöne deutsche Stadt. Norddeutschland.	Piper, München	. . . M.	1.80
Trinius, Der Rhein und seine Lieder.	Kummers, Leipzig	. . . M.	1.80
Deutsche Burgen und feste Schlösser.	Langewiesche, Leipzig	. . . M.	1.80

sicht, welche Rolle der betreffende Volksstamm in der Entwicklung der deutschen Kulturgeschichte spielt.

Nun braucht man aber auch ein Buch, das eine ausführlichere Beschreibung der einzelnen Orte und Gegenden gibt und das ausserdem einige historische Kapitel enthält; denn viele Dinge können nur auf Grund der Geschichte verstanden werden. Für diesen Zweck möchte ich das Buch von A. Sach, *Die Deutsche Heimat* empfehlen. Es ist ein Buch von ungefähr 600 Seiten, nicht das Werk eines Verfassers, sondern eine gutgewählte Zusammenstellung von einzelnen Kapiteln aus einschlägigen Werken. Natürlich sind die verschiedenen Kapitel nicht von gleichem Wert und gleicher Wichtigkeit; aber man wird darin doch fast alles Wichtige und Wissenswerte finden. Es gibt z. B. ein Kapitel über die Ritterburg im Mittelalter; dann ein besonderes Kapitel über die in der Sage und Geschichte so berühmte Wartburg; ferner ein hübsches Kapitel über die deutschen Weihnachtsgebräuche; die Beschreibung von Weimars klassischen Stätten; die Hohenstaufen und Hohenzollern; Köln und der Kölner Karneval; Nürnberg; München; das Passionsspiel zu Oberammergau; die Insel Rügen; das Ordensschloss in Marienburg, u. s. w.

Berlin als Hauptstadt des Landes verdient wohl ein etwas eingehenderes Studium, und dazu würde ich die Rodenbergschen Bilder aus dem Berliner Leben empfehlen. Diese Essays sind in ihrer Art literarische Kunstwerke; sie sind in den letzten Jahren der Regierung von Wilhelm I. entstanden, als Berlin wirklich zur Weltstadt heranwuchs, in jenem Jahrzehnt, das als das Heldenzeitalter des neuen Deutschlands gilt. Wir wandern mit dem Verfasser durch das Brandenburger Tor und in anmutiger Weise erzählt er uns von dessen künstlerischer und historischer Bedeutung, oder wir gehen mit ihm ganz früh an einem Wintermorgen durch die einsamen Strassen Berlins und sehen, wie der Laternenmann die letzte Laterne auslöscht, wie der Bäckerjunge und die Milchfrau die Bewohner mit ihrem Frühstück versorgen, dann kommt die Zeitungsfrau, und der Briefträger macht seine erste Runde, und allmählich beginnt das übrige Berlin, sich aus dem Schlaf zu erheben.

Die bis jetzt besprochenen Bücher haben nur ganz wenige und ungenügende Bilder. Daneben bedarf man aber auch einiger gut illustrierter Werke, denn die Beschreibung der Gegend, der Städte

und ihrer Sehenswürdigkeiten ohne Bilder ist natürlich ganz wertlos. Ich möchte besonders die vorzüglich illustrierten kleinen geographischen Volksbücher von Velhagen und Klasing empfehlen. Dieselben sind zum geringen Preis von 15 cents zu bekommen. Unter ihnen scheint mir der kleine Band über den Schwarzwald ganz besonders hübsch. Ich möchte auch gerne ein deutsch-österreichisches Land herausgreifen das in der Geschichte eine ungemein wichtige Rolle gespielt hat: Tirol mit seiner alten Völkerstrasse, die von Italien nach Deutschland führt, wo heute noch die schönsten alten Städte und Burgen unser Interesse erwecken.

Auch die Dichtung sollte in Betracht gezogen werden; der Teil Deutschlands, der von Sage und Geschichte am meisten umwoben ist, der Rhein, hat die Dichter natürlich am meisten angezogen; mit den Dichtern wollen wir eine Wanderfahrt den Rhein entlang machen und das Buch von Trinius, *Der Rhein und seine Lieder* bereitet uns durch Wort und Bild eine genussreiche Stunde.

Zum Verständnis für die Eigenart der deutschen Städte gibt es gut illustrierte Bücher. Ich möchte dafür besonders Baum, *Die schöne deutsche Stadt* empfehlen. Das Werk zerfällt in drei Teile, Nord-, Mittel-, Süddeutschland, und ich will besonders Nord- und Süddeutschland herausgreifen. Hier erfahren wir das Wichtigste über die Anlage der Stadt, über die mittelalterlichen Befestigungen, die Laubengänge, die Rathäuser und alles, was in diesen Städten uns so lebhaft an das Mittelalter erinnert. Die Illustrationen sind vorzüglich, und zwar geben diese nicht nur das, was Baedeker mit zwei Sternchen versieht, sondern auch einfache und unbekannte Stadtbilder, die dem Freude machen, der langsam mit Musse in Deutschland herumreist. Überall ist das Charakteristische herausgehoben, die nordischen Ziegelbauten, die Fachwerkbauten, die eigentümliche Anlage der Ordensstädte im Osten, die halbvergessenen und verschlafenen kleinen Land- und Reichsstädtchen im Südwesten.

Aus dem Studium der schönen, alten, zweckmässigen Stadtanlagen lassen sich vielleicht auch einige Folgerungen für die Gegenwart ziehen. Gerade in diesem Studium liegt für die Lehrerin, besonders die Lehrerin in einem kleinen Orte, eine Kulturmission, die nicht zu unterschätzen ist. Die Lehrerin, die die richtige Stellung in ihrem Städtchen einnimmt, kann unendlich viel dazu



beitragen, ein besseres Schönheitsverständnis zu erwecken, und sie kann sicher das Gewissen der Kinder und Erwachsenen schärfen und dem Verderben von Naturschönheiten, wie wir es leider in unserem Lande sehr häufig sehen, entgegenreten. Es ist ganz gewiss eine Aufgabe der Schule, den Schönheitssinn in den Kindern zu wecken und zu stärken, und in diesem Lande ist diese Pflicht noch wichtiger als in den alten Kulturländern Europas, denn es gibt hier nur wenig schöne, alte Gebäude, nur wenig künstlerisch schöne Stadtanlagen, deren Anblick die Kinder unbewusst erziehen und bilden könnte. Wir dürfen nie vergessen, dass die Zukunft des Landes in den Händen des Lehrers und der Schule liegt. Die Kinder, die wir jetzt unterrichten, werden in wenigen Jahren die verantwortlichen Bürger der Vereinigten Staaten sein.

Bis jetzt hat die Schule wohl kaum ihre Pflicht als Weckerin des Schönheitssinnes genügend erfüllt. Neu-England mit seinen poetisch schönen, ulmenbeschatteten Städtchen und Dörfern ist eine der sehr wenigen Landschaften Amerikas, die der Reisende mit dem Gefühl verlässt, dass die Schönheit der Natur hier nicht durch Menschenhand verdorben wurde, und in gerade diesem Sinne kann eine eingehendere Beschäftigung mit den älteren und neueren Dorf- und Stadtanlagen Deutschlands für Lehrer und Schüler von grösstem Nutzen sein. Ein Wort zur rechten Zeit kann vielleicht Sinn und Verständnis erwecken für die Freihaltung eines schönen Platzes, für die Wahrung einer schönen Aussicht, für alles das, was dem Schönheitssinn und nicht dem Nutzen allein dient.

Was den Amerikaner vielleicht am meisten in Deutschland und Europa interessiert, sind die Überreste der historischen Bauwerke, die aus der Zeit vor dem 17ten Jahrhundert stammen, also etwas, was hier in Amerika gar nicht zu finden ist, besonders die alten Burgen. Die beste Sammlung solcher Bilder ist das Buch, *Deutsche Burgen und feste Schlösser*, ein ganz hervorragendes Werk der deutschen Reproduktionstechnik. Der Band enthält 130 Abbildungen von Burgen und festen Schlössern aus allen Ländern deutscher Zunge. Zuerst sehen wir die Ritterfesten des süddeutschen Westens, die in Berg und Wald eingebaut sind; dann die grossartigen Ordensschlösser des Nordostens, die Klöster und Festungen zu gleicher Zeit gewesen sind; dann die schweren Ziegelbauten und Wasserburgen des westniederdeutschen Gebietes. Diese Bauten wirken noch heute als die Wahrzeichen der Länder

und gewissermassen als die Sinnbilder der Stämme, unter denen sie errichtet worden sind.

Wer die empfohlenen Illustrationen in der deutschen Stunde mit der Klasse benützen will, dem würde ich raten, die einzelnen Bilder auszuschneiden und auf Pappe aufzuziehen, da sie auf diese Weise haltbarer und handlicher für den Klassengebrauch sind.

Vielleicht ist die Schule auch bereit, etwas Geld für den Schmuck des deutschen Klassenzimmers auszugeben, und in diesem Fall möchte ich besonders auf die Teubnerschen Steinzeichnungen hinweisen. Der Verlag gibt einen Katalog mit diesen Bildern in kleinem Format heraus, woraus man eine sehr gute Auswahl treffen kann.

In welcher Weise bringt nun ein solches Studium dauernden Nutzen für den Lehrer, für den Unterricht, für die Schule? Wenn der Lehrer mit Land und Volk bekannt ist, gibt ihm das sofort ein tieferes Verständnis der Bücher, die er für sich oder mit der Klasse liest. Seine Vorbereitung auf die Schulstunde besteht nicht darin, dass er am Abend vorher oder während der Pause die Anmerkungen am Ende der Schulausgabe schnell liest, sondern darin, dass er sich das ins Gedächtnis zurückruft, was er im Zusammenhang mit seinem geographischen Studium gelesen und in Bild oder in Wirklichkeit gesehen hat.

Man lies und bespricht mit der Klasse Storms *Schimmelreiter* und sofort erinnert man sich an das Kapitel über die Friesen und ihre Wohnsitze, die nordischen Marschen; oder man liest *Das Peterle von Nürnberg*, und die deutschen Städte um die Mitte des 15ten Jahrhunderts, sowie die vielen schönen Bauwerke, die aus jener Zeit stammen, stehen einem sofort vor den Augen.

Auch die deutschen Gedichte nehmen sich ganz anders auf einem solchen Hintergrund aus: Bei Barbarossa denkt man an das Kyffhäusergebirge; man denkt an das Kapitel in Sach über die Hohenstaufen und die Hohenzollern und die Burgen im Mittelalter; wenn man mit der Klasse Goethes *Wandlers Nachlied* lernt, stehen einem Weimars klassische Stätten vor Augen; auch die Wartburg, wo Luther lebte, ist nicht mehr ein leerer Begriff.

Das Wenigste von dem, was man gelesen hat, wird man dem Schüler mitteilen; denn die Kunst des Lehrers besteht gerade so sehr in dem, was er nicht sagt, als in dem, was er sagt, aber gerade in den wenigen wohlgewählten Worten fühlt der Schüler unbewusst

die gründlichen Kenntnisse des Lehrers, und die wahre Begeisterung, die auf einer genauen Kenntnis des Stoffes beruht, wirkt ansteckend.

Wir wissen alle, welch eine Anregung für den fleissigen und talentvollen Schüler ein hingeworfenes Wort, ein zufällig gezeigtes Bild sein kann. Die wenig begabten Schüler können es kaum schätzen; aber für die klugen und geistig regsamen wird es vielleicht eine Anregung fürs Leben sein. Die Schulverwaltung verlangt,—ob mit Recht oder Unrecht lassen wir dahingestellt,—dass die Schüler, die nicht ordentlich mitkommen, von dem Lehrer etwas Nachhilfe bekommen sollen. Unser eigenes Interesse verlangt, dass wir etwas für diejenigen tun, die der Klasse vorausseilen und für die die Schule nur Langweile und Stumpfsinn ist, wenn sie nicht ihren Fähigkeiten gemäss beschäftigt werden. Und gewiss ist der glückliche und erfrischende Einfluss, den ein solcher Schüler auf den Lehrer ausübt, etwas sehr Erstrebenswertes und einer kleinen Anstrengung wert.

Für den Lehrer selbst ist ein solches Studium der Landeskunde eine grosse Quelle des Vergnügens; von gleich grossem Wert für solche, die eine Zeitlang in Deutschland zugebracht haben, wie für solche, die eine solche Reise planen. Wieviel schöne Reiseerinnerungen werden durch diese Bilder und Bücher erweckt. Wie viel mehr Verständnis für manches, was man vielleicht etwas schnell gesehen und nicht ganz in seinem Zusammenhang verstanden hat! Und welche Freude, sich auf Grund eines solchen Studiums einem Reiseplan in Deutschland selbst auszuarbeiten! Auch das Reisen will gelernt sein und gerade für den Lehrer des Deutschen soll das Reisen in Deutschland nicht nur eine Kunst, sondern beinahe eine Wissenschaft sein. Reisen heisst nicht durch Schlösser gehetzt werden und mit dem Baedeker in der Hand durch Kirchen und Museen laufen. Der Lehrer darf nicht nur, wie Cooks Reisegesellschaften, die Prunkstücke der Natur und der Vergangenheit sehen; auch die einfache bürgerliche Kultur der modernen Zeit, das Leben des Tages ist von gleich grossem Interesse für ihn.

LILIAN L. STROEBE.

Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.

## REVIEWS

**Für Kleine Leute** by Anna T. Gronow, Ginn and Company, 1915.  
12 mo., xi + 194 pp.; 60 cents.

Gronow's *Für Kleine Leute* is intended for pupils of the fifth to the eighth grade. In view of the dearth of handbooks for this more elementary stage of German instruction, in which the number of pupils has moreover been constantly increasing of late, the book will be heartily welcomed. It consists of a series of 82 "Stunden", followed by an Appendix of "Spiele".

The individual lessons are short enough to allow of treatment within the compass of a single period. In most cases a children's rime or jingle is made the basis of the lesson—an idea which, while good in itself, is perhaps carried through too consistently not to result in a certain monotony. There is in such jingles the further danger of the odd and unusual in form and expression, a danger that does not, of course, affect the native child but which is real enough in the case of one who hears German for a period of thirty or forty minutes a day only. Thus "Mutter, sag' mir ein Sprüchlein an" (p. 32), "Das Wünschen mein" (p. 98), "Gerne vergess' ich dein" (p. 106). "Mit den langen Beiner" (p. 108) are all abnormal and had better be kept away from the beginner, especially at a stage where no effort is made to teach formal grammar. In justice it should be added that, while the above list could readily be added to, there is relatively little of this objectionable phrasing.

The exercises are well-planned and of great variety and interest. There are also a number of, in the main, excellent illustrations. One wonders, to be sure, whether the drawing on p. 39 is the illustrator's idea of a German "Garten", and whether in the case of the girl on p. 129 he is not laboring under a confusion of the terms Dutch and German.

The Vocabulary is much less complete than the Note on p. 157 would seem to imply. The German script on page X is far too small to be of practical use for young pupils. As regards the text, it may perhaps be worth while to point out that the dog's name (p. 48) is Phylax, not Philax; and that eggs at "drei Pfennig" (p. 28) must rest on a confusion of "Pfennig" and "penny" that should hardly be permitted. One is sorry also to see (p. 55) the unusual form "Hansel" for the universally known "Hänsel".

B. J. Vos.

Indiana University.

**Heinrich Seidel, Leberecht Hühnchen**, edited by William F. Luebke (The Walter-Krause German Series). New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1915. 12 mo., xiii + 145 pp.; 50 cents.

*Leberecht Hühnchen* is a text that both for its intrinsic merit and on account of its Berlin *milieu* deserves to be read more widely than it has been. Two editions, one by Bernhardt (American Book Company), the other by Span-

hoofd (Heath) were hitherto available, but the present book offers so greatly differing an apparatus that its *raison d'être* alongside of the earlier editions will hardly be questioned.

The book consists of an "Einleitung" (two pages), of the text (cut up into "Kapitel" of the editor's making), and of "Anmerkungen", "Fragen", and "Übungen", all of these latter in German. To this is added a "Wörterverzeichnis" with the customary English definitions, supplemented, in rather more than one-fourth of the total number of words, by German synonyms.

The Introduction gives in simple but idiomatic German a brief sketch of Seidel's life, in which (in accordance with modern tendencies?) his work as engineer rather than as man of letters is stressed. Why pupils may be assumed to know the German words occurring here is not altogether clear: they are not entered in the Vocabulary. The date, 1870, here given for Seidel's entering Wöhlert's machine-shop agrees with Bernhardt's statement but it is wrong by two years to judge from Seidel's own statement in *Von Perlin nach Berlin* (p. 178).

Except for the Vocabulary, the proof-reading has been done with considerable care. In the narrative portion the only error of consequence is *sich* for *sie*, p. 76, l. 11. However, when compared with the original the text makes the impression of being based on that of Spanhoofd, an impression that is strengthened by an examination of the Vocabulary, where errors in alphabetical arrangement, of omission, and, at times, of interpretation, as made by Spanhoofd, are slavishly followed. Thus, in exact agreement with Spanhoofd, *fruchtbar*, *grollen*, *nötigen* are out of their alphabetical place; and *aufleuchten* (p. 63, l. 28), *brechen* (p. 77, l. 11), *Braut* (p. 96, l. 7), *Bücherbrett* (p. 38, l. 22), together with numerous other words, are wholly lacking. Especially injudicious seems to me the arrangement, after the example of both Bernhardt and Spanhoofd, of words with *sz* in an order differing from that given to words in *ss* (*auszer* after *auswandern*), an arrangement that is contrary to the best modern usage, and which is, in fact, not followed in the other numbers of the Series.

Ther German Synonyms of the Vocabulary will doubtless prove a valuable aid to the pupil and to many a teacher. This part of the work is on the whole well-done, but its practical value would be still greater, if the connection in which the words occur in the text had been constantly borne in mind. As it is, synonyms occasionally do not fit the context. To illustrate, *erbärmlich* is defined as *unglücklich* but this fits neither *erbärmliches Häuschen* (p. 38) nor *erbärmlich wimmern* (p. 58); similarly, *beobachten* may be *bemerken* but not in *einen rationellen Fruchtwechsel beobachten* (p. 41).

Instead of the stock-map of Germany accompanying the volume a plan of Berlin and suburbs would have been more helpful. The former does not fit the needs of the text so very well, and is besides presumably on the walls of the German class-room.

The strength of the book lies in the "Anmerkungen", "Fragen", and "Übungen". These are skillfully constructed and evince the hand of the resourceful teacher.  
Indiana University.

B. J. Vos.

**Elementary French Reader** by Louis A. Roux, A.B., New York, The Macmillan Company, 1916. 8vo., xii + 150 pp.; 50 cents.

This work with a modest title and a comparatively small number of pages contains within its two covers all that is necessary for a serious acquisition of the French language on the oral side in conjunction of course with a teacher to aid in the mastery of the sounds. The book contains sixteen prose stories, of which the longest one has twenty-five pages, and seven poems. The selections in prose are interspersed with paragraphs of varying proportions made up of a series of questions in French on the subject matter of the text preceding. At the outset, there are arranged in list form some sixty expressions adaptable at the beginning for oral usage in class. Added to these features, there are eight full-page illustrations of notable persons and places of France which serve to beautify the book and to attract the student by very laudable means and secure his interest. Then towards the end of the Reader, the regular verb is given the space of a few pages, for purposes of general outline, followed by some rules on the formation of tenses, and after that, a ten-page table of the most important irregular verbs. Last of all, there is the vocabulary containing approximately twenty-five hundred words and forms of verbs which the student has to meet with in the text proper and which he might otherwise be unable to locate.

This summary glance over the general contents of the Reader is enough to indicate the trend of the work and the particular aim which the author had in view when he compiled its different parts. In the preface to the book, the author has enumerated eight special features which his work contains but he might have added still one other to the list in strict justice to the subject, as he has treated it, and that ninth feature would be the carefully wrought scheme of gradation he has managed to apply to a book of such short compass. The French material begins with adaptations of fables from LaFontaine and concludes with writers like Daudet, and this same process of grading is noticeable in the questionnaires of the author which must have cost him considerable effort to arrange.

One especially good element in the book is the treatment of the problem of tenses, to meet which the author has allowed no other than present tenses throughout the first three selections, and the preterite tense does not appear until the eleventh of the total sixteen selections.

It is clear from the above cursory statement of the contents and plan of the work of Mr. Roux that teachers of the direct method are indebted to him for his conscientious labor in producing a work that fits their needs so directly and with such precision in the choice of material as can be found within the compass of this book.

The vocabulary is almost entirely free from errors. Such slight mistakes as *carracoler* and the year 1771 under the word *Tuileries* can be corrected in a later edition without any difficulty. It is to be hoped that this work will receive special recognition from those who are interested in this field of education, and that means every teacher of the French language with up-to-date and live methods in classroom instruction.

Princeton, N. J.

F. L. CRITCHLOW.



**Grammaire de la Conversation, Direct Method in French**, by Mary H. Knowles and Berthe Des Combes Favard. D. C. Heath and Co., 1916. clxiii—171 pp., \$1.15.

**Fundamentals of French, a Combination of the Direct and Grammar Methods**, by Frances R. Angus, Henry Holt and Co., 1916. xv—280 pp.

**A Practical Introduction to French** by Luther Herbert Alexander, Oxford University Press, 1916. xxi—355 pp., \$1.00.

The above beginners' books in French are worthy of the attention of progressive teachers for various reasons. All show a laudable desire to do something, if not entirely novel, at least fresh and stimulating. Two at least are a departure from the methods generally pursued in our public institutions; the other, though more or less along the old lines, yet offers something new and better than the majority of books of that nature now in use. In this rapid review lack of space forbids a critical examination of details; a general outline of the aims and plans of the work is all that will be attempted.

The Knowles-Favard *Grammaire de la Conversation* contains 128 lessons of one to six exercises each, a section devoted to rules, four pages of *formules épistolaires*, two pages of proverbs, a chart of French sounds, instructions for home work, a questionnaire covering the rules of the first twenty-nine lessons, and a vocabulary of about eighteen hundred words. The material contained in the work would take up fully two years of high school at the rate of five hours a week, or two years of college at three hours a week. Each lesson is made up of a number of questions and answers calling for answers and questions on the part of the students. The work is done orally in class after it has been prepared in writing at home. Minute instructions are given for the performance of that task. Reference is made throughout the work to the authors' *Perfect French Possible*, a treatise on pronunciation. I am convinced that the method followed for two or three years according to directions, will yield distinctly good results. There is little opportunity for shirking on the part of the student. The book should also prove interesting to the instructor who will be able to use it for years without that feeling of boredom which after two or three years' use seems to exude from some grammars we all know. The conventional translating grammar with a few so-called conversational phrases thrown in at the end of each lesson becomes in time deadly to the best teacher. It may be added that in the Knowles-Favard method no cheap devices are resorted to in order to make grammar attractive. It is all work and little play, and students are made to feel constantly that they are earnestly trying to acquire command of a living tongue. Yet the work will prove interesting to learner and teacher alike if, as the authors recommend in their foreword, the sentences are "acted out" or "mimed." Teachers who have little opportunity to speak French outside of their classes will find this book helpful for their own use. It is idiomatic throughout, and what strikes one, even at a superficial perusal, is the wealth of colloquial expressions (e. g. *Comment vous portez-vous? A peu près bien. Comme ci comme ça. Pas trop mal. On ne peut*

mieux etc.) The authors' claim, made in the preface, that pupils can be made to speak from the outset, not only grammatically "but with ease and flexibility," that they can "think these things in French", or that *Perfect French Possible* referred to above gives "infallible rules for the production of all French sounds as well as rules for rhythm which are to be found in no other published work" seems exaggerated to the experienced teacher who has striven for years to achieve such a highly desirable, though seldom attained result.

*Fundamentals of French* is more strictly speaking a systematic guide for the teaching of conversation than a grammar. Vocabulary and rules are taught by means of explanations with appropriate gestures, motions and mimicry on the part of the teacher, by questions and answers in French, and by a number of questions and answers in English for translation. One seeks in vain for the usefulness of the paragraphs entitled *Traduisez*. For if in chapter III the students have already answered in French the question "Où sont les livres?" by "Ils sont sur la table," nothing can be gained by making them translate half a dozen lines lower on the page "Where are the books? They are on the desk." It would seem more logical to adopt the so-called Berlitz method and exclude English altogether. The grammatical facts are stated in small type at the foot of the page, as concisely as possible,—a good practice in a book of this type. Some parts—the subjunctive, for instance—are treated quite fully. A grammar resumé is added separate from the main part of the book (pp. 169–228). Some fairy tales (*Cendrillon*, *Chaperon Rouge*), a couple of short stories (*Noiraud*, *l'Escapade*), extracts from *Les trois mousquetaires* and of *Le voyage autour du monde* are included for home reading or class treatment. All in all it is a work that will render valuable service especially with small classes where there is opportunity to give students individual attention. Far less provision is made for written work than in the Knowles-Favard book. On the other hand, the pronunciation is fully set forth in an introduction covering seventeen pages. This part is done with more than ordinary care and thought, and will prove very helpful to both teacher and pupil. The book has a complete vocabulary.

The next work is less of a departure from the conventional grammar type. Dr. L. H. Alexander's *A Practical Introduction to French*, intended for the first and second year of high schools and a first year college course has the familiar features: rule or rules of grammar with examples, paradigms, vocabulary preceding each lesson, oral drill, written exercises, review questions, *toute la lyre*. Five pages are devoted to the new grammatical nomenclature recommended by the Joint Committee, and applied in the present book. The first few chapters are taken up with matters of pronunciation, and they are introduced with the categorical statement that "The sounds must be learned from a teacher." This is obviously true if the teacher himself has a good pronunciation. The statement might have a disquieting effect on the pupil's mind should he have doubts as to the orthodoxy of his instructor's accent. It should be stated, however, that the author does give the approximate English equivalents of the French sounds, together with a phonetic transcription of several lessons, in an appendix (pp. 236–245). Some of those approximations are open to criticism; thus the *a* of *pas* and *pâte* is like the *a* of *palm* only in

certain sections of the country. In some parts of South Carolina, and, I think of New England, it has the sound of **a** in **lamb**: on the other hand the English **a** in the same word is far too broad. Again, the **o** of the French **pot** is very unlike the **o** of the English **note**. We all realize of course that it is not easy to find English equivalents, and perhaps we should not criticize an author too severely for not always finding the exact shade or what we think is the exact shade.

There are forty-two lessons in all. Twenty-four deal with the general rules of grammar and their application; eighteen are given up to the irregular verbs and to an elaboration of rules studied in the first part. The practice work of the latter part is based mainly on three short stories.

The author states in his introduction that "the book encourages a large amount of oral work." Yet the exercises for oral practice seem rather scant. The teacher will therefore have to rely on his own ingenuity to supply what is lacking in this respect. At any rate it is a careful piece of work, and, if used judiciously, by condensing the somewhat lengthy grammatical explanations preceding each lesson, by supplying the oral drill, the book ought to be of excellent service in classes where the translation method is followed primarily.

J. L. BORGERHOFF.

Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio.

**Elementary Spanish Grammar** by Espinosa and Allen.  
American Book Co., p. 367; \$1.24.

This book has many features which should commend themselves to the approval of teachers of Spanish. The Present Indicative of the regular verb is introduced in the first lesson thus making possible the use of connected passages for translation from Spanish into English from the beginning of the book. The conversational exercises which are very practical might be made still more valuable by introducing questions involving a change of subject in the reply. Changes of this sort, however, can readily be made by the teacher. The oral exercises and composition for translation into Spanish are exceptionally good, but one might wish that the composition could have been put in the form of connected passages earlier in the course of study. The vocabularies are not too long and show an excellent choice of words.

The grammatical introductions to the lessons are usually good and the rules are well stated, but some of the examples involve points which have not previously been treated in the grammar. For instance, in § 35, a. 1, dealing with the use of the definite article before "general nouns," the example *las madres aman a sus hijos* occurs, while the use of *a* before a direct object is not treated before § 44. Both *es* and *esta* occur in the texts and examples and *bueno* occurs in the vocabulary with both meanings of "good" and "well" before the differences between *ser* and *estar* are explained. In § 64 the statement is made that "the last two of a series of adjectives (modifying a noun) are usually connected by the conjunction *y* and in the examples under that paragraph the form *e* is used and *y* is not. Another example should here be introduced showing the regular use of *y* and a note stating under what circum-

stances *y* is replaced by *e*. The introduction of the Past Descriptive (Imperfect) and Past Absolute (Preterit) in the same lesson (V) is likely to confuse the student as to the distinction between those tenses. Object personal pronouns are not introduced until § 139 and occur in the examples used to illustrate grammatical principles as early as § 71. Radical-changing verbs are not introduced until § 194, and meanwhile the student has learned the Present Indicative of *querer*, *poder*, *decir*, etc., without any rule concerning radical changes to help him. Points of this sort make it often advisable for the teacher to refer ahead to a later lesson and take up points for explanation which were not originally intended for the lesson in hand. But even with these minor faults the book represents a notable improvement over many other Spanish grammars and should prove quite serviceable in the teaching of the language.

H. H. VAUGHAN.

University of Pennsylvania.

